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Photoactive cobalt-bipyridine electron mediator promotes reversible Li_2O_2 formation in irradiated Li-O_2 battery

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ABSTRACT

Photo-assisted charge/discharge has witnessed marked success in Li-O₂ batteries (LOBs) to overcome the sluggish kinetics of triphasic reactions at the cathode, but challenges remain to develop high-efficiency but low-cost photocathode catalysts. Herein, a photoactive electron mediator is applied, for the first time, as bifunctional photocathode catalyst in solar-assisted LOBs. The facilely synthesized tris(2,2-bipyridine) cobalt(II) complex (Cobpy) manifests good electrocatalytic activity in dark and high photoactivity under illumination, concertedly affording an superior charge/discharge voltage gap of 0.12 V and round-trip efficiency of 97%. Moreover, a significantly enhanced charge/discharge reversibility was attained under illumination and attributed to the light-induced amorphization of Li₂O₂ that further extends the cycle life. A two-circuit model is proposed to rationalize the better reduction of charge/discharge polarization at lower operating current density. This work not only extends the family of photocathode catalysts to small-molecule complexes, but also offers new insights into the mechanism of photoenergy storage in LOBs.

1. Introduction

The ever-growing demand on renewable energy sources and their utilization in a carbon-neutral fashion have put forward the development of efficient energy storage devices in high priority [1–3]. Aprotic Li-O_2 batteries (LOBs) based on the reversible reaction $\text{O}_2 + 2\text{Li}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \leftrightarrow$ Li_2O_2 ($E^0 = 2.96 \text{ V vs Li/Li}^+$) are one of the promising candidates owing to their high energy density of \sim 3600 Wh kg⁻¹ and utilization of oxygen in air as the cathode active material [4-6]. Despite the notable advantages, hurdles remain to overcome the sluggish kinetics of the triphasic reaction at the cathode surface and the high energy barrier to decompose the insoluble and insulative discharge product of Li₂O₂ [5]. On one hand, the accumulative deposition of Li₂O₂ at the cathode/electrolyte interface during charge/discharge would inevitably mask the catalyst active sites, blockade the gas and liquid permeation, and ultimately shut off the redox electron transfer [7-10]. On the other hand, the high charging overpotential associated with Li₂O₂ decomposition surpassing the electrochemical window of electrolyte would incur severe parasitic reactions that drastically curtail the battery life [7,11]. Thus, one of the

key tasks in deploying the Li-O_2 technology is to lower the over-potentials for reversible Li_2O_2 formation/decomposition [12], and thereby improve the round-trip energy efficiency and alleviate parasitic side reactions.

Tremendous efforts have been devoted to addressing the above-mentioned issues, including the exploitation of potent electrocatalysts (e.g. Pt/Au [13,14], Ru/RuO₂ [15–17], Co_xO_y [18,19], MnO_2 [6,20–22], $NiCo_2O_4$ [23] etc.) to lower the activation barrier and regulate the reaction path for Li_2O_2 formation/decomposition, as well as the application of redox mediators (e.g. TTF, FC, InBr, LiI [24–26] etc.) to expedite the reaction kinetics through electron relay. Recently, the efficiency of LOBs has been seen improved by further applying various external physical fields [27,28]. Among them, photo-assisted LOBs have attracted most attention in virtue of the dramatic increase in round-trip energy efficiency through the storage of photoenergy into electrochemical energy [5,29,30]. It has been shown that the photovoltaic effect incorporated into LOBs can not only reduce the overpotentials for oxygen reduction and evolution reactions (ORR/OER), but also expedite the Li_2O_2 decomposition and suppress the intermediate- LiO_2 lifetime

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[31–33]. For instance, by fabricating a bifunctional photocathode composed of TiO2-Fe2O3 heterojunctions, Xu et al. demonstrated the tailoring of Li₂O₂ morphology to enhance the OER kinetics, resulting in an outstanding low discharge/charge potential gap of 0.19 V [32]. Yang et al. reported a bifunctional CeVO₄ catalyst that not only lowers the charge overpotential to 0.52 V thorough a photo-assisted mechanism, but also suppresses highly reactive LiO2 intermediates to avoid the oxidative decomposition of electrolyte and cathode materials during discharge [34]. By electrospinning photoactive and catalytic WSe2 moieties into CNT-reinforced carbon nanofibers, our group have also shown that upon illumination the Li2O2 morphology can be converted from a toroidal morphology in dark to a thin-film coating wrapping around the fibers, leading to significantly lowered polarization and extended capacity [35]. Notwithstanding, it must be noted that all the photoactive materials exemplified above involve relatively complex synthetic measures that are both time and energy-consuming, not to mention the better-desired energy efficiency and cycling stability.

Previous studies have illustrated that an ideal photocatalyst to be employed in solar-assisted LOBs should possess not only good electrocatalytic activity, but also potent photoactivity with suitable band structure to catalyze both the ORR and OER reactions [33,36]. In view of these attributes, metal-organic complexes with catalytically active metal centers such as Co, Ni, Cu, and tunable frontier orbital configuration (and thus tunable band structure) are highly intriguing [37-39]. Chen et al. have shown that semiconducting metal-organic polymer nanosheets composed of cobalt-tetramino-benzoquinone (Co-TABQ) could serve as photocatalyst for enhancing the kinetics of cathode reactions under visible light. They ascribed the ORR reaction to the photoactivated metal-ligand charge transfer (MLCT) and the OER process to photo-vacated d orbitals in the transition metal center [40]. Inspired by this work, in the current study we extend, for the first time, the photocatalyst in solar-assisted LOBs to small-molecule complex. We chose the compound of tris(2,2-bipyridine) cobalt(II) (Co-bpy) based on the following considerations: 1) the compound can be easily synthesized through a precipitation reaction in atmospheric condition; 2) the Co-N coordination with an Oh symmetry has been reckoned as an efficient catalyst for oxygen conversion reactions [41,42]; 3) the complex is colored in yellow and potentially photoactive; 4) the facile conversion between Co(II)-bpy and Co(III)-bpy allows it to serve as the electron mediator for expediting the redox kinetics [43]. As a result, LOBs employing Co-bpy as the photocathode catalyst achieve an ultralow discharge/charge voltage gap of 0.12 V under illumination, accounting for a round-trip efficiency of 97%, and a long-term cyclability of 60 and 330 cycles under continuous and intermittent illumination, respectively.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Chemicals

2,2'-Bipyridyl and Cobalt chloride hexahydrate were procured from Aladdin (Shanghai) Co., Ltd. Anhydrous ether was purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. Anhydrous methanol was purchased from Jiangsu Qiangsheng functional Chemistry Co., Ltd. TiO-SO₄·xH₂SO₄·xH₂O (93%) were provided by Aladdin (shanghai) Co., Ltd. All chemicals were of analytical grade and used as received.

2.2. Sample preparation

The small-molecule compound of tris(2,2-bipyridine) cobalt(II) was prepared as follow. First, 0.01 mol (2.3793 g) CoCl $_2$ •6 H $_2$ O was added to a 100 mL round bottom flask containing 20 mL methanol. Then, 0.03 mol (4.68552 g) bipyridine was dissolved in 20 mL methanol, and subsequently added dropwise into the above CoCl $_2$ solution (Fig. S1). Afterwards, the solution was stirred for 2 h at 50 °C. After cooling to room temperature, about 2/3 of the solvent was removed by rotary evaporation, followed by adding 30 mL anhydrous ethyl ether and

standing for 20 min. Finally, the resultant precipitates were filtered out and vacuum-dried at 80 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for overnight.

2.3. Characterization

Mass spectra were recorded using a Bruker Ultraflextreme MALDI-TOF instrument. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR, Bruker Tensor 27) was used to analyze the functional groups of samples. Raman spectra were acquired using a confocal laser Raman microscopy (Horiba Jobin Yvon, HR Evolution). The sample morphology was examined by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, Hitachi SU8010). Powder X-ray diffraction (pXRD) spectra were acquired by a Bruker D8 ADVANCE diffractometer equipped with the Cu-Kα radiation source. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Thermo Fisher, ESCALAB 250Xi) equipped with a monochromated Al Kα source was used to characterize the elemental composition and chemical states of samples. UV-Vis spectra were recorded with a Lambda 750 S spectrometer (PerkinElmer, USA). The photoluminescence (PL) spectra were obtained by a fluorescence spectrometer (HORIBA, Fluoromax-4) with a Xenon lamp (150 W) as the excitation light. Ultraviolet Photoelectron Spectroscopy (UPS) was performed on an Escalab 250Xi system (Thermo Fisher, USA) with the pristine Au used for Fermi level calibration. Photocurrent tests were conducted through a CHI-660D electrochemical workstation (Shanghai Chenhua, China) in a Li-O2 Battery setup by intermittently switching the irradiation light (420 nm) on and off.

2.4. Electrochemical measurements

To prepare the photocathode, the Co-bpy active material, conductive agent of KB, and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) binder were homogeneously mixed in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone at a ratio of 60%: 30%: 10%. The resultant slurry was casted onto a carbon paper via the doctor blade method, and vacuum dried at 80 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 12 h. The active material mass loading on the cathode was about 0.25 \pm 0.05 mg and based on that the specific capacity and current density were calculated. The assembly of 2032-type coin cells was conducted in an Ar-filled glove box with the contents of H₂O and O₂ maintained below 0.1 ppm. In each cell, 1.0 M LiTFSI in Tetraglyme of 160 µL was used as the electrolyte without additional additives, and a glass fiber disk of 19 mm in diameter (Whatman GF/D) was used as the separator. Galvanostatic charge/ discharge measurements were carried out on a LAND CT2001A battery testing system in homemade gas-tight testing bottles filled with oxygen (Fig. S2). Electrochemical impedance spectrometry (EIS) measurements were performed using a Zahner Zennium-E electrochemical workstation within the frequency range set from 100k to 0.01 Hz at an amplitude of 5 mV. Cyclic voltammetries (CV) were conducted on a CHI-760E electrochemical workstation with the scan rate set at 0.1 mV s⁻¹. Differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS) experiments were conducted on a quadrupole mass spectrometer (Prisma Plus QME220) with the gas inlet connected to a customized Swagelok cell assembly.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structure and optical properties of Co-bpy

The complex of tris(2,2-bipyridine) cobalt(II) (abbreviated as Cobpy) was synthesized by a one-pot reaction as detailed in the experimental section. In this small-molecule compound, each cobalt is coordinated with three bipyridines as witnessed by the mass spectrometry (MS) shown in Fig. 1a. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectrum (FT-IR) taken on Co-bpy showed notable Co-N signals at 418 and 1016 cm⁻¹, corresponding to the asymmetric and symmetric stretching $\nu_{(Co-N)}$ vibration modes, respectively (Fig. 1b) [44–48]. Other peaks associated with the C-H, C=C, and C=N bonding in bpy also underwent wavenumber shift and intensity change after the formation of the Co-bpy complex. Similarly, the Raman spectrum of Co-bpy also manifests

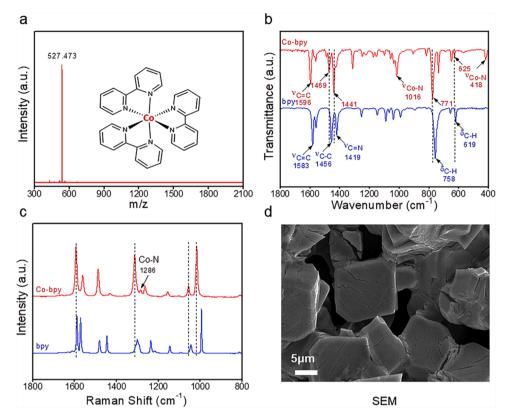


Fig. 1. Structural characterization of Co-bpy. (a) Mass spectrum; the inset image shows the molecule structure of Co-bpy with an O_h coordination symmetry. (b) FT-IR and (c) Raman spectra of Co-bpy in comparison to the bpy ligand. (d) SEM image of the crystallized Co-bpy.

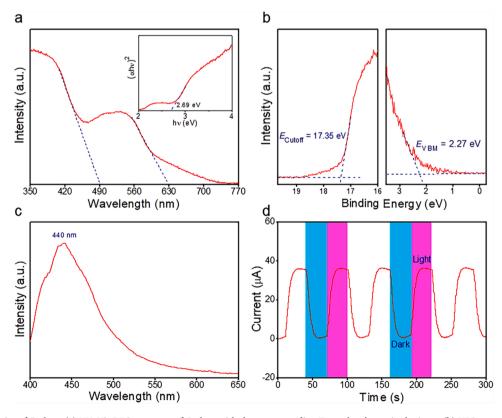


Fig. 2. Optical properties of Co-bpy. (a) UV-Vis DRS spectrum of Co-bpy with the corresponding Tauc plot shown in the inset. (b) UPS spectrum. (c) Steady-state PL spectrum. (d) TPR i-t plot.

quite different vibration pattern to that of bpy due to the metal-ligand coordination (Fig. 1c), which is in good agreement with previous studies [49,50]. The peak at 1286 cm $^{-1}$ attributed to $\nu_{(\text{Co-N})}$ vibration provides a strong evidence for the Co(II) coordination in an octahedral ligand field. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image in Fig. 1d shows that the Co-bpy compound is well-crystallized, exhibiting multi-facet exposure.

The optical properties of Co-bpy were characterized by Ultraviolet-Visible Diffuse Reflection Spectroscopy (UV-Vis DRS), Photoluminescece Spectroscopy (PL), Transient Photocurrent Response (TPR) and Ultraviolet Photoelectron Spectroscopy (UPS). The DRS spectrum shown in Fig. 2a reveals a major band with the extrapolated absorption edge from 490 nm and a shoulder with the absorption onset at 750 nm, endorsing the superb light absorption of the complex. The corresponding Tauc plot (Fig. 2a inset) indicates the main absorption at lower wavelength dominates the band structure, manifesting a band gap (Eg) of 2.69 eV. The observed band characteristics of Co-bpy with multiple absorptions of varying intensity can be well understood from the frontier orbital theory in association with the selection rules [51-54]. UPS measurements further reveal that the work function of Co-bpy is 3.87 eV and the valence band maximum (VBM) is situated at 2.27 eV below the Fermi level (Fig. 2b). Therefore, the energy level of VBM is approximated at 6.14 eV (vs. Vacuum) for Co-bpy. This in turn gives a conduction band minimum (CBM) located at 3.45 eV (vs. Vacuum). By translating the vacuum-zeroed energy coordinate to that zeroed by the standard electrochemical potential of Li/Li⁺, we can then further deduce the CBM, VBM, and FE of Co-bpy, respectively positioned at 2.05, 4.74, and 2.47 V vs. Li⁺/Li (Fig. S3). Note that the CBM and VBM of Co-bpy span across the standard electrochemical potential of 2.96 V (vs. Li/Li^+) for the reaction $\text{Li} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Li}_2\text{O}_2$.

The steady-state PL spectrum of Co-bpy in Fig. 2c shows an emission peak centered at 440 nm under the excitation of 350 nm, further confirming the fact that the main UV-Vis absorption peak with the onset at 490 nm dictates the optical band structure of Co-bpy. By consecutively truncating the light illumination, Co-bpy demonstrated efficient photocurrent response in the TPR spectrum shown in Fig. 2d. The average density of photocurrent reaches to 37.5 $\mu A~cm^{-2}$, in contrast to the near-zero current density in dark, and remains constant during the whole testing period of 300 s. Collectively, all the optical and photochemical characterizations above, in conjunction with the well-reckoned catalytic activity of Co-based complexes [55–57], forecast Co-bpy a potential photocatalysts to be utilized in solar-assisted Li-O2 batteries.

3.2. Electrocatalytic performance of Co-bpy

The electrochemical properties of Co-bpy as the oxygen-cathode catalyst were assessed in the coin-type LOBs and compared with KB. First of all, the cathode loaded with Co-bpy showed good stability in the tetraglyme electrolyte containing 1.0 M LiTFSI. After soaking for 72 h, there was no color change observed for the electrolyte, indicative of no dissolved Co-bpy (Fig. S4). This was further confirmed by UV–Vis spectra taken on the electrolyte before and after soaking, revealing negligible change of the absorption bands (Fig. S5). To further interrogate the stability of Co-bpy on the electrode under continuous bias, a three-electrode configuration was adopted to repeatedly conduct cyclic voltammetries (CVs) in the aforementioned electrolyte (Fig. S6). UV–Vis spectra taken on the electrolyte extracted after the 3rd and 12th cycle revealed no featured absorption of Co-bpy, corroborating its good electrochemical stability (Fig. S7).

CVs taken on the LOBs of Co-bpy and KB within the potential range of 2.0–4.5 V (vs. Li⁺/Li) were given in Fig. S8. For Co-bpy, the cathodic current is peaked at 2.21 V with a maximum of 2.22 mA, whereas the peak cathodic current of KB is located at 2.10 V with a much lower value of 1.12 mA. This observation points to the lower polarization and higher kinetics of the ORR reaction $(O_2 + 2\text{Li}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Li}_2O_2)$ catalyzed by Co-

bpy. On the anodic scan, the catalytic effect of Co-bpy is even more distinct. Two anodic peaks at 3.53 and 4.05 V can be clearly identified, corresponding to the stepwise decomposition of Li₂O₂ through the OER reactions ($\text{Li}_2\text{O}_2 \to \text{LiO}_2 + \text{Li}^+ + \text{e}^-$; $\text{LiO}_2 \to \text{O}_2 + \text{Li}^+ + \text{e}^-$) [9,58,59]. In a stark contrast, there is no obvious anodic peak observed on the CV curve of KB. We thus surmise Co-bpy, as the electron mediator [43,60,61], plays a key role to relay the electron transfer in the reaction cascade through the redox couple $[Co(bpy)_3]^{2+}/[Co(bpy)_3]^{3+}$. Since Co-bpy in this case is loaded on the oxygen cathode, it is only involved in half reactions on the cathode, i.e. $O_2 + Li^+ + e^- \leftrightarrow LiO_2$, $E^0 = 2.65 \text{ V}$ (vs. Li^+/Li); $LiO_2 + Li^+ + e^- \leftrightarrow Li_2O_2$, $E^0 = 3.27 \text{ V}$ (vs. Li^+/Li); $O_2 + 2Li^+ + e^- \leftrightarrow Li_2O_2$, $E^0 = 3.27 \text{ V}$ (vs. Li^+/Li); $O_2 + 2Li^+ + e^- \leftrightarrow LiO_2$) $2e^- \leftrightarrow Li_2O_2$, $E^0 = 2.96 \text{ V}$ (vs. Li^+/Li) [62]. As an effective electron mediator, the $[Co(bpy)_3]^{2+}/[Co(bpy)_3]^{3+}$ couple ($E^0 = 0.56$ V vs. SHE) can facilely donate or extract electrons to drive the above reactions [63]. By further comparing the total area of all cathodic and anodic peaks, one can clearly see that Co-bpy produces more discharge products of Li₂O₂ than KB does. Therefore, a good ORR/OER catalytic activity can be expected for Co-bpy when applied as the cathode catalyst in Li-O2

In accordance with the CV measurements, LOBs utilizing Co-bpy as the cathode catalyst demonstrated much improved charge/discharge overpotentials. When charged and discharged at the current density of $100~\text{mA}~\text{g}^{-1}$ with a cut-off capacity of $1000~\text{mA}~\text{hg}^{-1}$, the battery of Co-bpy showed a mid-term charge/discharge potential gap of 0.84~V in the first cycle (Fig. 3a), in contrast to 1.21~V for the KB-based battery (Fig. 3b). After 60 cycles, the terminal charging potential of the Co-bpy cell was still less than 5~V and the mid-term charge/discharge voltage gaps increased to 2.16~V (Fig. 3a). In comparison, the terminal charging potential of the KB cell surpassed 5~V after only 30 cycles with a midterm charge/discharge voltage gaps of 2.26~V (Fig. 3b). Nonetheless, it is worth to note that the slowly increase of charge/discharge polarization observed on the Co-bpy cell suggests there is still plenty room for improving the charge/discharge reversibility.

To interrogate the discharge/charge reversibility of the Co-bpy cell, in-situ differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS) was utilized to track the O2 consumption/evolution and quantify the faradaic efficiencies. During discharge, an obvious decrease in oxygen flux was monitored by MS. Integration of the O2 consumption against total faradaic current resulted in a e⁻/O₂ number of 1.84, which is slightly less than the theoretical value of 2 for Li₂O₂ formation and accounts for a faradaic efficiency of 92% for O2 conversion (Fig. 3c). It is generally recognized that the formation of Li₂O₂ in the crystalline form involves the solvated intermediate of LiO₂, which is highly active in reacting with both the electrolyte and electrode materials (including even carbon) [64-66]. Therefore, it is not surprised to see that the DEMS study only gave a e⁻/O₂ ratio of 1.84, meaning some oxygen were consumed without giving faradaic current. In the subsequent charging process, the number of e⁻/O₂ (evolution) was quantified to be 2.05, apart from the observation of trivial CO2 due to carbon oxidation and/or electrolyte decomposition (Fig. 3d). Additionally, the total amount of oxygen evolution (0.61 µmol) during charge is lower than that of oxygen consumption (0.72 μ mol) during discharge. Together, these results indicate that the discharge and charge processes are not fully reversible and accompanied with side reactions.

Raising the operating current progressively from 100 to $1000~{\rm mA~g}^{-1}$ in the galvanostatic cycling test, the LOB of Co-bpy further manifested a superior rate capability to that of KB (Fig. 3e). Particularly, in the ten consecutive cycles operated at $1000~{\rm mA~g}^{-1}$ the electrocatalyst of Co-bpy lent an average discharge voltage of $2.59~{\rm V}$, which is $0.17~{\rm V}$ higher than that of KB. Once the operating current was switched back to $100~{\rm mA~g}^{-1}$, the discharge voltage of the Co-bpy cell was fully recovered and maintained constant, whereas that of the KB cell deteriorated quickly. More impressively, the LOB of Co-bpy demonstrated an ultrahigh specific capacity of $51650~{\rm mAh~g}^{-1}$ at $100~{\rm mA~g}^{-1}$ (taking into account the total weight of Co-bpy and KB on the cathode), doubling that of the KB cell with a total discharge capacity of $25418~{\rm mAh~g}^{-1}$

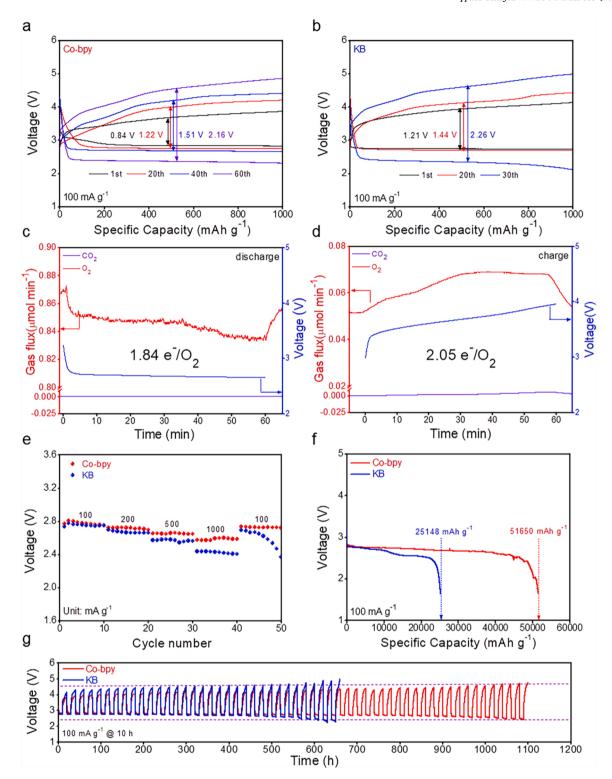


Fig. 3. Electrocatalytic performance of Co-bpy in Li-O₂ batteries. (a, b) Serial charge and discharge curves taken on the a) Co-bpy and b) KB cells showing the midterm charge/discharge potential gaps. (c, d) In Situ DEMS spectra taken at the first c) discharge and d) charge of the Co-bpy cell. (e) Rate capability, (f) total discharge capacity and (g) cycling stability measured for Li-O₂ batteries of Co-bpy and KB.

(Fig. 3f). Increasing the charge/discharge current density to 500 mA $\rm g^{-1}$, a high specific capacity of 21088 mAh $\rm g^{-1}$ can still be attained, further testifying the great rate performance of Co-bpy (Fig. S9). The cycling stability tests in Fig. 3g show that Co-bpy is capable of maintaining a long cycling stability of 1100 h till the charging voltage hit 4.5 V, in great contrast to the cycling life of 600 h for the KB cell tested under the same condition (1000 mAh $\rm g^{-1}$ at 100 mA $\rm g^{-1}$).

Raising the operating current density to 200 and 500 mA $\rm g^{-1}$, LOBs of Co-bpy can still achieve a stable operation for 716 and 430 h (Fig. S10), respectively, which are much better than the performance of the KB cells. Taken together, the above electrochemical tests unanimously attest to the high efficacy of Co-bpy in catalyzing the Li-O₂ reaction in LOBs, albeit not fully reversible. Apart from Co-bpy, other cobalt-based compounds such as Co-FPOH[38], Co-TABQ[40], Co-C₃N₄[67] and

Co-CTF/KB[68] have been also reported to facilitate O_2 adsorption and catalyze its conversion on the porous cathode, which markedly improve the kinetics of the oxygen conversion reactions.

3.3. Photo-electrochemical performance

In virtue of the afore-demonstrated photoactivity of Co-bpy, the assembled LOBs were further inspected under illuminated conditions. CVs taken on the illuminated Co-bpy cell displayed similar redox features to those observed in dark, with two anodic peaks located at 3.33 and 3.56 V and one large cathodic peak centered at 2.33 V (Fig. S11). Note that both the anodic/cathodic voltage gap and current density under illumination were significantly improved when compared to those observed in dark (Fig. S8), implying that the cell polarization can be mitigated through light irradiation. In addition, the null CV curve in Ar confirms that the redox peaks observed above were indeed from oxygen reactions. Fig. 4a compares the first discharge/charge curves of LOB at $100~\text{mA}~\text{g}^{-1}$ with and without illumination. Strikingly, the terminal discharge voltage under illumination raised to 3.45 V from the value of 2.85 V in dark, even exceeding the thermodynamic equilibrium potential of 2.96 V (vs. Li⁺/Li). Meanwhile, the terminal charge potential

under illumination decreases to 3.57 V, leading to an ultralow charge/discharge potential gap of 0.12 V and an extraordinary round-trip efficiency of 97%. Thus, it becomes obvious that the charge/discharge polarization of LOB can be effectively compensated by the photovoltaic effect of Co-bpy.

The outstanding LOB performance under illumination can be preserved for at least 60 cycles (Fig. 4b), after which the Xeon lamp had to be shut off to avoid overheating. At the current density of 500 mA g $^{-1}$, the LOB of Co-bpy under illumination demonstrated both enhanced capacity (Fig. S12, S13) and cycling behavior (Fig. S14), but the contrast between light and dark conditions was less stark when compared to the low-current scenario shown in Fig. 4a and b. This phenomenon has been often seen in literature studies and can be attributed to the inadequate photogenerated carriers in comparison to the overall circulating current, which is further witnessed by the rate performance tests with the current density ramped from 100 to 2000 mA g $^{-1}$ (Fig. 4c, with a cycling cut-off capacity of 500 mAh g $^{-1}$) and will be discussed in more details later. Notwithstanding, at all current densities the LOB under illumination exhibited notable reduction of charge/discharge polarization, which justifies the benefit brought by the photovoltaic effect of Co-bpy.

Electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) were taken at different

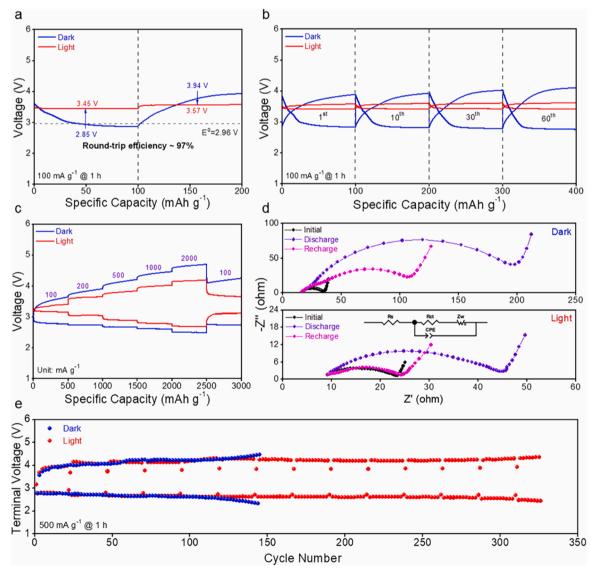


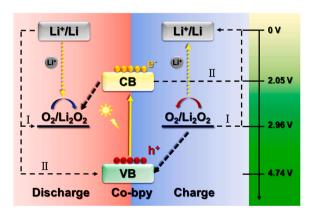
Fig. 4. LOB performance of Co-bpy with and without illumination. (a) First discharge and charge profiles and (b) cycle performance at 100 mA g^{-1} with a cut-off capacity of 100 mAh g^{-1} . (c) Rate performance from $100 \text{ to } 2000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$. (d) Nyquist plots taken at different charge/discharge states. (e) Cycling stability under intermittent lighting vs. in dark at 500 mA g^{-1} .

charge/discharge states to interrogate the charge kinetics in LOBs of Cobpy under dark and illuminated conditions. The Nyquist plots in the top panel of Fig. 4d show that the charge transfer resistance (Rct) after discharge in dark was drastically increased to 155.9 Ω from 22.8 Ω of the initial state, as a result of the formation of insulative Li₂O₂. After recharging, R_{ct} reduced to 81.2 Ω, suggesting the incomplete decomposition of Li₂O₂. In a stark contrast, the illuminated LOB showed a much smaller resistance in all charge/discharge states. Specifically, R_{ct} increased from the initial 21.8 Ω to 42.7 Ω of the discharged state, and then returned to 22.3 Ω after recharging. The nearly identical R_{ct} values between the initial and recharged states strongly suggest that light illumination helps to promote reversible Li₂O₂ formation/decomposition. This leads us to further leverage such advantage (of photoenhanced Li-O2 reaction reversibility) to remedy the oxygen cathode through intermittent light irradiation for extending the LOB cycle life. As shown in Fig. 4e, by intermittently illuminating the LOB of Co-bpy once per ten cycles, the cycling life can be greatly extended from 145 to 327 cycles at 500 mA $\rm g^{-1}$, which can be attributed to the photoexcited holes in facilitating the oxidative decomposition of $\rm Li_2O_2$, rendering a cleaner electrode surface with mitigated Li₂O₂ accumulation. This argument was further supported by a parallel test designed to compare the contributions from illuminated discharge or charge to the cycling behaviors, revealing much alleviated charge/discharge polarization with the application of only lighted charging (Fig. S15).

3.4. Mechanistic insights into the reversible Li₂O₂ formation/decomposition under illumination

It is known that suitable energy levels of CB and VB are key to the photocatalysts in catalyzing reversible ORR and OER reactions in photoassisted Li-O₂ batteries [8,33,69]. Scheme 1 illustrates the energy band diagram for the LOB of Co-bpy assessed in this study. As aforementioned, Co-bpy possesses conduction and valence bands respectively positioned at 2.05 and 4.74 V (vs. Li+/Li), spanning across the equilibrium potential of Li/Li₂O₂ (2.96 V vs. Li⁺/Li). Upon illumination, photoelectrons are excited to the conduction band, leaving an identical number of holes in the valence band. During discharging, the photoelectrons are consumed to reduce O2 to form LiO2 and Li2O2 by reacting with Li⁺ traversed from the anode. The outcome is the rise of the discharge voltage from its equilibrium potential as driven by the photovoltage, meaning the conversion of photoenergy to electricity. On the other hand, during charging the decomposition of Li₂O₂ is facilitated by the holes in the valence band, which helps to lower the OER overpotential. Meanwhile, the photoelectrons are propelled to reduce Li⁺ at anode via the external circuit.

As the photogenerated carriers are typically limited to some extent, the photovoltaic effect becomes more eminent at lower operating



Scheme 1. Energy diagram of Co-bpy in reference to ${\rm Li^+/Li}$ and ${\rm O_2/Li_2O_2}$ to illustrate the two-circuit model for photo-assisted Li-O₂ battery comprising the electrochemical path I and photoexcited path II.

current. This can be well understood from the two different electron transfer paths (namely the electrochemical path I and photoexcited path II) in contributing to the total external current shown in Scheme 1. Taking the discharge process as an example, energy conservation requires:

$$V_{dis}I_{dis} = I_1 \times V_{eq} + I_2 \times V_{VB} - OP \times I_{dis}$$
(1)

$$I_{dis} = I_1 + I_2 \tag{2}$$

Thus,
$$V_{dis} = I_1/I_{dis} \times V_{eq} + I_2/I_{dis} \times V_{VB} - OP$$
 (3)

Make $n_1 = I_1/I_{dis}$; $n_2 = I_2/I_{dis}$

We get
$$V_{dis} = n_1 \times V_{eq} + n_2 \times V_{VB} - OP$$
 (4)

Where I_1 is the portion of external circuit current associated with the reduction of O_2 to Li_2O_2 (note that part of O_2 is also reduced by the photoelectrons from CB), I_2 is the other portion of external circuit current associated with the neutralization of photogenerated holes on VB, OP is the discharge overpotential.

Consequently, the discharge voltage can be represented by a linear combination of $V_{\rm eq}$ and V_{VB} minus the overpotential. When the total discharge current is small, the path II of electron transfer dictates due to the higher driving potential, and thus one should see a significant rising of discharge voltage. As the operating current increases, Path I takes a larger cut of the pie (due to the inadequate photocarriers) and ultimately overwhelms Path II. Similarly, Eqs. 5–7 illustrate the relation among $V_{\rm cha}, V_{\rm eq}, V_{\rm CB}$ and OPin the charging process, where Path II also takes a priority to Path I due to the lower needed work.

$$V_{cha}I_{cha} = I_1 \times V_{eq} + I_2 \times V_{CB} + OP \times I_{cha}$$
(5)

$$I_{cha} = I_1 + I_2; n_1 = I_1/I_{cha}; n_2 = I_2/I_{cha}$$
 (6)

$$V_{cha} = n_1 \times V_{eq} + n_2 \times V_{CB} + OP$$
 (7)

Collectively, the above discussions should help rationalize the drastically reduced discharge/charge voltage gap at low rates. However, it should be noted that even at very low current densities the charge and discharge overpotentials caused by electrode polarization, ohmic contact and interfacial resistance are insurmountable, which should help to comprehend the difference between the measured discharge/charge voltages and their theoretical values.

To characterize the Li₂O₂ morphology on Co-bpy cathodes with and without illumination, SEM images were taken. As shown in Fig. 5a, the illuminated cathode presents a thick and uniform layer of lamellar Li₂O₂ products, which are mostly disappeared after charging (Fig. 5b). XRD detected no signals belong to crystalline Li₂O₂ (Fig. 5c), suggesting the amorphous nature of the discharge products. In addition, the cathode morphology after illuminated charging almost completely recovered to its initial state (Fig. 5b vs. S16), affirming the high reversibility of Li₂O₂ formation/decomposition under illumination. Previous studies have attributed the amorphous thin-film like Li₂O₂ products to a surface growth mechanism that is facilitated by enhanced charge transfer kinetics [1,70,71]. Here, Co-bpy, serving as the efficient oxygen catalyst and electron mediator, helps to effectively relay the electron transfer and further support the surface growth mechanism of Li₂O₂. In a stark contrast, the morphology of Li₂O₂ formed in dark exhibits the classic toroidal shape (Fig. 5d), ascribed to a solvation-mediated pathway that is thermodynamically driven. After recharging, a significant portion of the discharge products was decomposed, but some toroidal Li₂O₂ particles can be still visualized (Fig. 5e). XRD taken on the cathode discharged in dark further revealed distinct peaks at 32.7° and 34.8°, corresponding to the (110) and (100) planes of Li₂O₂ (JCPDS # 74-0115), respectively. The intensity of all these peaks was notably weakened after charging in dark (Fig. 5f). It is worth to note that there have been controversies in literature over the role of the amorphous thin-flim Li₂O₂ products in trading the capacity with rate capability and

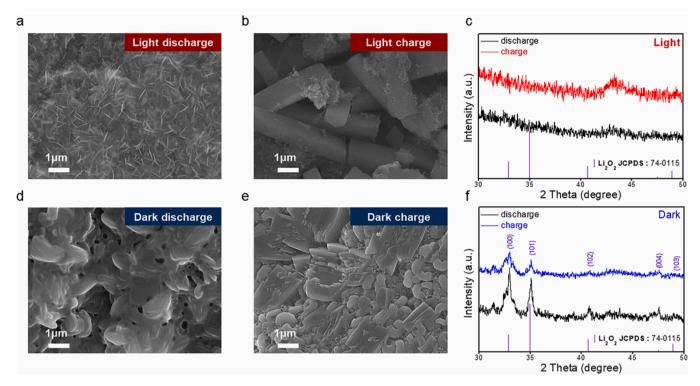


Fig. 5. Post-mortem characterizations on the oxygen cathodes evidencing the reversible Li_2O_2 formation/decomposition under illumination. (a, b) SEM images and (c) XRD patterns taken on the discharged and recharged Co-bpy cathodes under illumination. (d, e) SEM images and (f) XRD patterns taken on the discharged and recharged Co-bpy cathodes without illumination.

reversibility [5,9,72–75]. In our study, as shown in Fig. 5a, the lamellar ${\rm Li_2O_2}$ products were grown on the catalyst surface both laterally and vertically, lending plenty voids to allow the permeation of electrolyte and ${\rm Li^+}$. Additionally, the amorphous ${\rm Li_2O_2}$ thin film itself might serve as the SEI, allowing ${\rm Li^+}$ to penetrate and react with ${\rm O_2}$ on the other side of the thin film, leading to both the enhanced capacity and reversibility.

To further confirm that the amorphous thin film formed under illumination is indeed Li₂O₂, chromometric and DEMS characterizations were carried out. First, to quantitatively compare the Li₂O₂ formation on different cathodes including KB, Co-bpy in dark and Co-bpy under illumination, we discharged all the LOBs with the same capacity of 2 mAh and then immersed the electrodes in 2% aqueous TiOSO₄ solutions. The presence of peroxide (O_2^{2-}) species would turn the solution into a yellow color through the formation of TiO_2^{2+} [76–79]. Hence, the amount of Li₂O₂ formed or left on the cathodes after discharge/charge can be analyzed through UV-Vis spectra (Fig. S17). It can be seen that the quantity of Li₂O₂ formed on the cathode after discharge follows the order: KB < Co-bpy in dark < Co-bpy under illumination, which is consistent with the trend of observed capacity. More impressively, the electrode of Co-bpy after illuminated charge caused only a negligible color change of the TiOSO4 solution, which strongly testifies the enhanced Li₂O₂ reversibility, which was further supported by the DEMS results (Fig. S18). As our DEMS setup was not able to integrate light illumination, we managed to discharge the cell of Co-bpy under illumination and then run the DEMS analysis by charging the cell in dark. Despite not ideal, this should still help us discern whether or not the amorphous Li₂O₂ products formed under illumination is more facile to decompose without causing severe side reactions. A nearly perfect e⁻/O₂ ratio of 2.01 was obtained here, offering collateral evidence for the discharge product of Li₂O₂, as well as the enhanced reversibility on the illuminated Co-bpy electrode.

Lastly, XPS was employed to characterize the Li 1 s state after discharge and recharge on Co-bpy cathodes with and without illumination. When operated in dark, the discharged cathode displayed a prominent Li 1 s peak at 55.0 eV, which faded significantly after

recharging (Fig. S19). Similar Li 1 s peak was also observed on the illuminated Co-bpy cathode after discharge, but completely disappeared upon recharging (Fig. S20). Taken together, all the comprehensive characterizations above, in conjunction with previous EIS measurements, unequivocally attest to the fact that the reversibility of $\rm Li_2O_2$ formation/decomposition catalyzed by Co-bpy can be further boosted by light irradiation.

4. Conclusion

In the current study, photoactive small-molecule complex is applied for the first time, to our best knowledge, as a bifunctional photocathode catalyst in solar-assisted Li-O2 batteries. In dark conditions, the Co-bpy complex with octahedral Co-N coordination manifested a good electrocatalytic activity in lowering the charge/discharge polarization, promoting the redox kinetics, and extending the specific capacity. Under illumination, the charge/discharge voltage gap was further reduced to 0.12 V at 100 mA g⁻¹, accounting for an impressive round-trip efficiency of 97%, which is among the best seen in literature. The reduction in charge/discharge polarization through the introduction of photovoltaics was found more eminent at low operating current density, which was understood by a two-circuit model newly proposed. More importantly, a significantly enhanced charge/discharge reversibility was achieved under illumination and attributed to the light-induced amorphization of Li₂O₂, which decomposes more easily and helps to further extend the cycling life of the LOBs. By extending the photocathode catalyst to small-molecule electron mediator of high efficiency but low cost and furnishing new insights into the associated charge transport, this work advances materials development and mechanistic understanding for photo-assisted LOBs.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

XinjianLi: Carried out laboratory work of material characterization and electrochemical characterizations, wrote draft of the manuscript.

Yanhui Su: Carried out optical characterization and some of the photoelectrochemical measurements. Yong Ma and Le Wei: Gave some constructive suggestions on the experiment. Ying He and Yuting Gu: Battery tests and data interpretation. Shiwei Mei: SEM data collection. Qiaoqiao Mu: Synthesis of materials. ChengYuan Peng: XRD data acquisition. Yang Peng: Idea initiation, data curation and proof reading. The corresponding author Zhao Deng: Initiated and oversaw the project, manuscript proof.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

Data will be made available on request.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.122964.

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